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PATENT

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Application Number 10/009,660

IN THE UNITED STATES PATENT AND TRADEMARK OFFICE

In re Application of: Martinez et al.

Art Unit: 1645

Application No. 10/009,660

Filed: December 7, 2001

For: METHODS AND COMPOSITIONS FOR
OPSONOPHAGOCYTTIC ASSAYS

Examiner: Hines, Jana A.

Date: August 28, 2003

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DECLARATION UNDER 37 C.F.R. § 1.132

1. I, Dr. George M. Carbone am a co-inventor named in the above-referenced patent application.
2. I have read and understand the above-referenced patent application, including the pending claims, and the Office action dated April 1, 2003.
3. The method disclosed in the above-referenced patent application has an important role in detecting functional antibodies to bacteria that undergo opsonophagocytic protection. The method allows one to simultaneously detect antibodies that recognize multiple bacterial serotypes. Previous methods for detecting antibodies that recognize a particular bacterial serotype, such as ELISA, only permitted detection of a single serotype at a time. Because previous methods only permitted detection of antibodies to one serotype at a time, these methods were both cost and labor intensive since large numbers of samples needed to be prepared and analyzed. In contrast, the method disclosed in the present application allows one to detect antibodies that recognize several different serotypes in a single sample, thereby reducing the amount of resources expended.
4. It is my understanding that in Paragraph 6 of the Office action of April 1, 2003, claims 11 and 21, which concern a method of determining the efficacy of an immunization, were rejected as not

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sufficiently enabled by the specification. As shown in Exhibit A (Jodar *et al.* Vaccine, 21:3265-72, 2003), results obtained using the method disclosed in the present application correlate with ELISA results of serologic protection. The vaccine efficacy study used the PREVNAR vaccine, which is known to be effective when used in infants as part of their routine vaccination schedule.

5. Figure 1 of Jodar *et al.* shows the compiled ELISA results of 30,000 subjects for the seven serotypes present in PREVNAR. Each serotype was analyzed separately using ELISA, and the results compiled into a single figure. As shown in Figure 1, the PREVNAR vaccine is 97.9% efficacious, if the antibody concentration reaches a threshold of 0.20 $\mu\text{g/ml}$.

6. To demonstrate that there is a correlation between the efficacy results obtained with ELISA and functional opsonophagocytic activity, the method disclosed in the present application was used to analyze all seven serotypes for 79 of the 30,000 subjects represented in Figure 1. Figure 2 of Jodar *et al.* shows the result from one of the seven serotypes (four serotypes were analyzed simultaneously, but only one is shown in the figure for clarity). Similar results were obtained for the other serotypes. As shown in Figure 2, the method disclosed in the present application can be used to distinguish subjects who are protected by the vaccine, and those who are not. In addition, there is a correlation between the 0.2 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ threshold antibody concentration obtained using ELISA (Figure 1) and the threshold opsonic antibody titer of 1:8 obtained using the opsonophagocytic assay disclosed in the present application (Figure 2). Therefore, the method disclosed in the present application, which detects functional antibodies to multiple serotypes simultaneously, was shown in Jodar *et al.* to indicate the efficacy of the PREVNAR vaccine.

7. I hereby declare that all statements made herein of my own knowledge are true and that all statements made on information and belief are believed to be true; and further that these statements were made with the knowledge that willful false statements and the like so made are punishable by fine or imprisonment, or both, under 18 U.S.C. § 1001, and that such willful false statements may jeopardize the validity of the application or any patent issued thereon.

George M. Carlone
Dr. George M. Carlone

August 28, 2003
Date

21: 3265-72, 2003

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Vaccine

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Serological criteria for evaluation and licensure of new pneumococcal conjugate vaccine formulations for use in infants^{*}

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Abstract

The World Health Organization (WHO) is undertaking a series of consultations on serological criteria for the evaluation and licensure of new formulations/combinations or different vaccination schedules of pneumococcal conjugate vaccines. The lack of a definitive serological correlate of protection and the multiplicity of antigens involved, especially since the clinical efficacy of most of the individual serotypes represented in the only licensed vaccine has not been established, are hindering the formulation of criteria for licensure of new formulations or combinations of the vaccine. This report analyses the various options with their relative merits and drawbacks and provides preliminary recommendations as guidance to regulatory agencies in evaluating these vaccines for the purposes of licensure. More detailed recommendations for production and control of pneumococcal conjugate vaccines, including criteria for evaluation for licensure, are currently being drafted.

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Keywords: *Streptococcus pneumoniae*; Conjugate vaccine; Correlates of protection

1. Introduction

The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that pneumococcal infections cause at least 1 million deaths annually worldwide [1]. Most of these deaths occur among young children in developing countries. A 7-valent pneumococcal conjugate vaccine was licensed in the United States in 2000 [2]. Licensure was based on a pivotal trial that established the efficacy of the vaccine against invasive pneumococcal disease among children in northern California [3].

However, this vaccine lacks a number of serotypes, such as 1 and 5, that are an important cause of invasive pneumococcal disease in South America, Africa and Asia [4]. Newer formulations containing 9 or 11 serotypes are currently under development [5–7].

A variety of formulations and presentations of 7-, 9- or 11-valent pneumococcal conjugate vaccines, either as stand-alone products or in combination with other antigens such as *Haemophilus influenzae* type b (Hib) or *Neisseria meningitidis*, may be required to accommodate the needs of individual countries or regions. Additional differences in formulations required in developing countries include combinations containing diphtheria–tetanus–whole cell pertussis (DTwP), and multi-dose formulations containing thiomersal. Furthermore, differences in the epidemiology of pneumococcal disease may require modifications of the immunization schedule in certain regions.

^{*} Use of vaccine trade names in this document is for identification only and does not imply endorsement by the authors or their institutions.

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For the purpose of licensure, non-inferiority of the newer formulations to the existing licensed formulation will have to be established. The multiplicity of antigens in these formulations will make such an assessment very complex. Establishing non-inferiority against clinical trial end-points for each new formulation is impractical. At the same time, establishing non-inferiority based on serological criteria is rendered difficult by the fact that there is no clear agreement on the concentration of antibody or titre in vaccinees that may be used in a non-inferiority model to predict whether a vaccine is effective. The lack of such data may result in efficacious vaccines being rejected on the basis of arbitrarily determined antibody concentrations. This could result in the production of vaccine being dependent on a single manufacturer, which could compromise global vaccine supply. In addition, this may also limit the number and types of combinations and formulations available for use, which would be detrimental from a public health point of view.

Because of possible differences in the optimal formulation, serotype distribution, disease burden and epidemiology, clinical trials may still be necessary in developing countries. These trials may provide additional serotype-specific efficacy. These data will help reinforce and refine the use of serologic end-points and the strategies outlined in these recommendations.

In order to discuss these issues and provide guidance to regulatory agencies for evaluation of new pneumococcal conjugate vaccine formulations based on serological criteria, WHO sponsored a consultation in Anchorage, Alaska in May 2002. The consultation reviewed available data on serological criteria that predict protection against pneumococcal disease and formulated a series of recommendations that may serve as important elements for the WHO recommendations for production and quality control of pneumococcal conjugate vaccines. This report describes the major scientific challenges for establishing a licensing pathway based on serological criteria and summarises recommendations made at this meeting.

2. General considerations for licensing pneumococcal conjugate vaccines

National control authorities are risk averse. Therefore, they expect data that provide high certainty that a new product is both safe and efficacious before approving it for licensure. While data establishing clinical protection are optimal, it is recognised that such data cannot always be obtained. Consequently, vaccines have been licensed purely on the basis of immunogenicity data, provided the criteria used predict clinical protection with a high degree of certainty. This pathway has been used for licensure of Hib and group C meningococcal conjugate vaccines.

The United States Food and Drug Administration (USFDA) has approved three different Hib conjugate vaccines for licensure. In 1990, it approved the first two, HibTITER™

(Wyeth Vaccines, Pearl River, New York) and PedvaxHIB™ (Merck, West Point, Pennsylvania) based on phase III clinical efficacy data [8,9]. In 1993 the third one, ActHIB™ (Aventis Pasteur, Lyon, France), was approved for licensure following evaluation of immunological data based on the criteria outlined below [10]:

- assessment of antibody responses, as measured by ELISA, in randomised comparative immunogenicity studies in infants with currently licensed vaccines as the control;
- persistence of antibodies after the primary immunisation series until the recommended booster dose is given;
- demonstration that the conjugate vaccine primes infants for a subsequent booster response to the native Hib polysaccharide, indicating the induction of immunologic memory;
- demonstration of functional capacity of conjugate vaccine-induced antibodies (e.g. measured either by opsonic or bactericidal activity).

The primary end-point for establishing non-inferiority was the proportion of vaccinees who developed antibody above a threshold concentration of 1.0 µg/ml, although it has been argued that maintaining anti-PRP concentrations of ≥ 0.15 µg/ml correlates better with protective efficacy [11].

Similarly, group C meningococcal conjugate vaccines were first licensed in the United Kingdom in 1999, based on their immunogenicity rather than clinical efficacy. The antibody data supporting the use of group C meningococcal conjugate vaccines in the United Kingdom, were generated by serum bactericidal assay (SBA) using rabbit complement. There is a general consensus that when baby rabbit serum is used as the source of complement, SBA titres of $<1:8$ are predictive of susceptibility to invasive meningococcal disease and titres of $\geq 1:8$ are predictive of short-term protection. In the UK, a combination of additional indicators was used to assess immune response to license a meningococcal group C conjugate vaccine. These include: (a) evidence of a four-fold rise in antibody titre between pre- and post-immunisations sera; (b) demonstration of immunological memory; or (c) evidence of increased avidity of group C-specific antibody [12,13].

While a similar strategy could be adopted for pneumococcal conjugate vaccines, the issue is complicated by the fact that unlike Hib and group C meningococcal conjugate vaccines, this vaccine is a mixture of multiple protein-conjugated polysaccharide antigens. The fact that newer formulations may contain additional antigens for which no licensed product is available for comparisons adds complexity to the registration pathway.

On a more pragmatic side, one would need to reconcile the importance of defining immune response measurements that reliably predict effectiveness with the importance of access to additional pneumococcal conjugate vaccines. A first major consideration deals with the availability of other pneumococcal conjugate vaccines in the short- and mid-term

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166 apart from the already licensed PrevnarTM. Balancing fac-
 168 tors that would make a vaccine acceptable for licensure even
 167 if 'inferior' in one or more aspects of comparison with the li-
 168 censed vaccine need to be considered. When in March 2001,
 169 the USFDA Vaccines and Related Biological Products Advi-
 170 sory Committee (VRBPAC) was asked for advice regarding
 171 whether non-inferiority immune response trials comparing
 172 a new pneumococcal conjugate vaccine containing seven or
 173 more serotypes with the licensed one would be sufficient for
 174 inferring efficacy against invasive pneumococcal disease, the
 175 majority of the committee agreed that non-inferiority would
 176 be sufficient. However, inferiority for rare serotypes might
 177 not be as important relative to the benefits of either having
 178 additional vaccines licensed or additional serotypes covered.

179 3. Serologic methods for defining immunological 180 correlates of protection

181 The serologic methods used to evaluate the licensed
 182 7-valent pneumococcal conjugate vaccine included two
 183 "critical" tests, i.e. IgG quantitation of all specimens and
 184 opsonophagocytic assays on a subset of specimens. Ad-
 185 ditional tests, i.e. isotype/subclass, avidity, and serotype
 186 cross-reactivity, have provided qualitative information about
 187 immune mechanisms evoked by this vaccine [14,15]. How-
 188 ever, interpretation of the results of multiple tests performed
 189 on one specimen can be challenging.

190 The potential issue related to the use of these tests is the
 191 reported modest relationship between the ELISA IgG con-
 192 centrations and opsonophagocytic titres [16]. This appears
 193 to be a greater problem with pre-immunization sera derived
 194 from vaccine naive adults than with post conjugate vaccine
 195 sera from infants or toddlers. Several factors, including the
 196 quality of the assays and the sera being analysed, may con-
 197 tribute to the modest correlation. The accuracy of the ELISA
 198 may be influenced by the substances in the sera, the quality
 199 of the reagents/materials and steps used in the assay. The
 200 outcome of the opsonophagocytic assays are affected by the
 201 type of phagocytes, bacteria and complement used in the
 202 assay. In addition, titres and therefore correlation between
 203 these assays, may be affected by characteristics of the pop-
 204 ulation from which the sera is obtained or the presence of
 205 pre-existing antibodies or other pneumococcal antigens in
 206 the sera. Optimization of the assays has improved the cor-
 207 relation between ELISA and the opsonophagocytic assays
 208 [17,18]. IgG antibody concentrations as measured by ELISA
 209 appears to be the best parameter to use as the primary criteria
 210 for licensure of new formulations for the following reasons:
 211 (1) IgG is the desired immune response; (2) the methodol-
 212 ogy for measuring it is validated in infants; (3) a bridge to
 213 efficacy data has been established; and (4) a cross-laboratory
 214 standardization process has been completed. The functional
 215 opsonophagocytic assays will provide critical supplement-
 216 ary data for the serotypes included in PrevnarTM and pri-
 217 mary data on additional serotypes in new vaccines. Other

218 serologic tests can provide additional descriptive data but
 219 have not yet been standardised and have not proven to be
 220 predictive of protective efficacy.

221 Finally, there are also likely to be statistical challenges
 222 with the use of serological criteria for licensure of pneumo-
 223 coccal conjugate vaccines. Newer formulations with nine or
 224 more different immunogens will be subject even to bigger
 225 problems associated with multiple statistical comparisons
 226 than the currently licensed 7-valent pneumococcal conju-
 227 gate vaccine. Antibody responses to some components of
 228 the new vaccine may be higher or lower than for the licensed
 229 product, further complicating the analysis.

230 3.1. Serological predictors of protection against invasive 231 disease inferred from pneumococcal conjugate vaccine 232 efficacy trials

233 The serological criteria that may predict protective effi-
 234 cacy against invasive pneumococcal disease are not precise
 235 concentrations but rather estimates or threshold levels that
 236 predict protection. The estimates are based on efficacy data
 237 that are themselves not very precise, i.e. have wide confi-
 238 dence limits. Moreover, the serological criteria used for en-
 239 capsulated bacteria are often from antibody binding assays,
 240 e.g. ELISA or RIA, which are surrogate (correlative) mea-
 241 surements for the likely protective activity, i.e. bactericidal
 242 or opsonic antibody.

243 Serological criteria for evaluation of pneumococcal con-
 244 jugate vaccines will be easier if serotype-specific efficacy
 245 data were available. However, in the Kaiser-Permanente
 246 trial, serotype-specific efficacy was shown for only four of
 247 the seven serotypes included in the vaccine. Licensure was
 248 based on aggregate efficacy, understanding that immune re-
 249 sponses and efficacy may vary between serotypes. In the
 250 absence of serotype-specific efficacy data against invasive
 251 pneumococcal disease, it will not be possible to define spe-
 252 cific serological criteria for each serotype contained in the
 253 vaccine.

254 In order to establish a threshold concentration of antibody
 255 that predicts protection two major simplifying assumptions
 256 may be made. The first assumption is that antibody con-
 257 centration after the primary series of three doses of vaccine
 258 predicts protection. Since there is conclusive evidence of
 259 aggregate efficacy after a primary series of three doses as
 260 well as after four doses, it is reasonable to use serological
 261 measurements after either three or four doses as criteria for
 262 evaluation. Post dose three assessment is more stringent be-
 263 cause the antibody concentrations and functional activity are
 264 lower than after the fourth dose and the highest age-specific
 265 disease risk is between the third and fourth doses. More-
 266 over, in many countries a three-dose schedule is more ac-
 267 ceptable than a four-dose one. The second assumption is
 268 that the relationship between risk of disease and antibody
 269 concentration is expressed in a step-wise rather than in a
 270 continuous function, whereas in reality the relationship is
 271 continuous.

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272 Taking into consideration these two assumptions, there
 273 are two options for estimating the antibody threshold that
 274 predicts protection against invasive disease: (a) protective
 275 concentrations are relatively similar for all types and that
 276 one level may be used for all types; and (b) concentrations
 277 are different for each serotype.
 278 Since the vaccine efficacy (VE) for invasive disease is
 279 known one may apply the following relationship to define
 280 the antibody concentration that predicts protection:

$$281 \quad VE = 1 - \frac{\text{probability of disease in Vax group}}{\text{probability of disease in control group}}$$

$$282 \quad VE = 1 - \frac{\% \text{ of Vax subjects with } [Ab] < Ab_{\text{protective}}}{\% \text{ of control subjects with } [Ab] < Ab_{\text{protective}}}$$

283 If one applies this relationship to the aggregate VE data
 284 from the Kaiser-Permanente efficacy trial [2], and if the anti-
 285 body concentrations in the control population are ignored,
 286 a serotype non-specific threshold concentration (i.e. option
 287 (a)) of 0.20 µg/ml is obtained (see Fig. 1).

288 If one uses option (b), an antibody threshold can only be
 289 only be derived for serotype 19F using the same formula
 290 and this is 0.4 µg/ml. For the other three serotypes for which
 291 efficacy data are available, a threshold cannot be defined
 292 using the reverse cumulative distribution curves, because no
 293 vaccine failures were observed.

294 In addition to the above analysis, there are several addi-
 295 tional factors that support the use of the 0.20 µg/ml thresh-
 296 old for predicting protection against invasive disease.

- 297 1. An antibody concentration ≥ 0.20 µg/ml corresponds to
- 298 the threshold of opsonic antibody titre of 1:8 (Fig. 2).
- 299 2. This threshold concentration also appears to predict the
- 300 age-specific disease rates, i.e. the rates increase when
- 301 passively acquired antibody concentrations decline below
- 302 ≥ 0.20 µg/ml and then decrease again when naturally ac-
- 303 quired antibody concentrations increase above this con-
- 304 centration (Fig. 3).

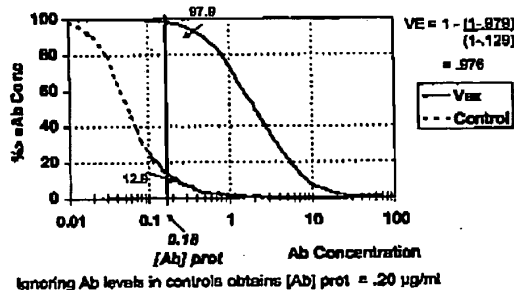


Fig. 1. Reverse cumulative distribution curves of antibody concentrations post dose 3 in vaccine and control groups. Data source: [3]. The reverse cumulative distribution curves were based on the pooled Ab concentrations of the seven serotypes.

Table 1
Correlation between post dose 3 and post dose 4 ELISA antibody (D118-P16)

Serotypes	Pearson correlation ^a N = 269–271	P-value
4	0.441	<0.001
6B	0.526	<0.001
9V	0.439	<0.001
14	0.341	<0.001
18C	0.498	<0.001
19F	0.306	<0.001
23F	0.545	<0.001

^a Correlation based on post dose 3 and post dose 4 Ab concentrations on log-scale.

3. This threshold is consistent with available data from passive immunization using bacterial polysaccharide immune globulin (BPIG) to prevent pneumococcal onitis media [19] and invasive pneumococcal disease [20].
4. This threshold appears to clearly discriminate between conjugate vaccinees and controls in immunogenicity studies (Fig. 1).
5. Infants with antibody ≥ 0.20 µg/ml after conjugate vaccine show evidence for priming for a subsequent response to the capsular polysaccharide (Fig. 4). Indeed, even immunized children who failed to reach the 0.2 µg/ml threshold showed evidence of priming.
6. Post dose three-antibody response is correlated with booster response to conjugate and polysaccharide (Table 1).

Relatively modest differences in the point estimate of efficacy may significantly influence the threshold antibody concentration derived by the method suggested above. This underlines the importance of precision of the efficacy estimate in deriving threshold antibody concentrations that predict protection. Pooling efficacy data from all the completed efficacy trials may provide higher precision for the efficacy estimates and more precise information on the serological criteria. Moreover, pooling data would mean that different ethnic population would be represented in the data making it more widely applicable.

While it is clear that a threshold concentration that predicts protection may be different at least for a few serotypes, the absence of precise efficacy for many of the serotypes make type-specific threshold difficult to define. Moreover, it is unlikely that type-specific thresholds could be defined for additional serotypes in formulations that had not undergone efficacy trials. Since the only licensed formulation was approved on the basis of aggregate efficacy, the same principle may be used with serological criteria, i.e. use a common threshold for all serotypes assuming that the concentration is relatively close for most serotypes.

The currently licensed vaccine was licensed based on efficacy against bacteraemia and meningitis. Serological criteria that predict protection against this end-point may be derived from the efficacy and immunogenicity data. However, these

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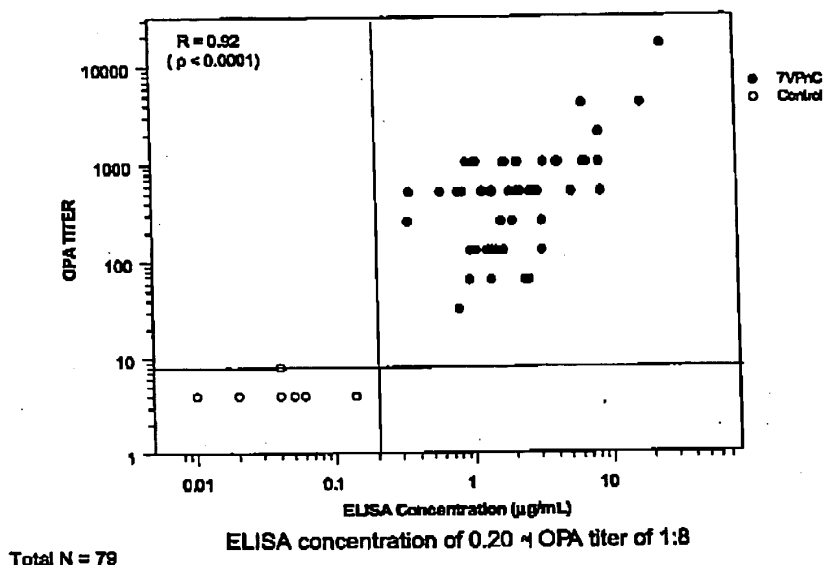


Fig. 2. Comparison of post dose 3 opsonophagocytic (OPA) titres and ELISA antibody concentrations for *S. pneumoniae* serotype 4 (types 6B, 9V, 14, 18C and 23F are similar). Data source: Lederle Laboratories. Data on file: Manufacturing bridging study of 7-valent pneumococcal conjugate vaccine, D118-P16 (France et al.).

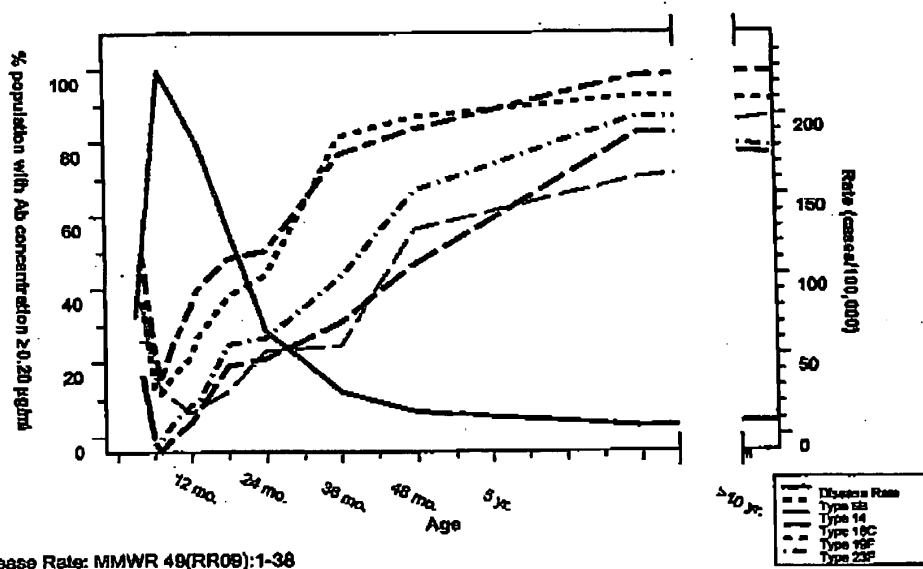


Fig. 3. Age-specific invasive disease rates and proportions with antibody concentration $\geq 0.20 \text{ mcg/ml}$. Data source: antibody concentrations: [3,30,31], Lederle Laboratories. Data on file: Safety, tolerability, and immunogenicity of 7-valent pneumococcal CRM₁₉₇ vaccine in children between 1 and 9 years of age, D118-P18 (Blank et al.). Lederle Laboratories. Data on file: Safety and immunogenicity of a single injection of pneumococcal CRM₁₉₇ vaccines in healthy adults, D124-P1 (Steinhoff et al.).

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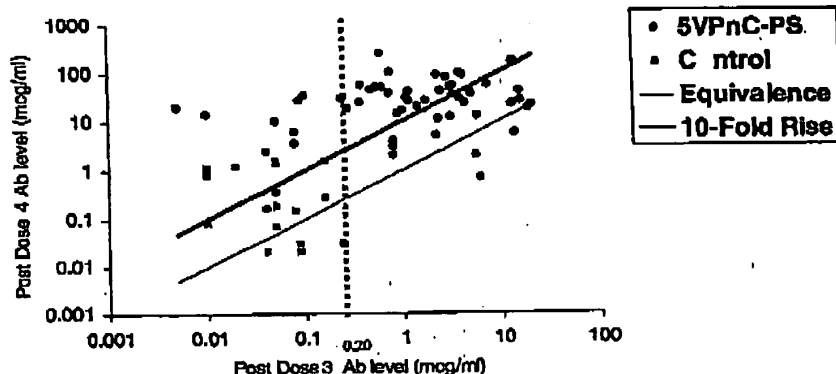


Fig. 4. Comparison of antibody concentrations against serotype 6B post dose 3 and post dose 4. Data source: Lederle Laboratories. Data on file: Immunogenicity of a booster dose of 23-valent pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccine in children who were previously immunized with three doses of pneumococcal conjugate vaccine, D92-P5 [32].

criteria may not predict protection against the more common diseases caused by the pneumococcus, namely pneumonia and otitis. Currently available efficacy data may not be sufficient to derive criteria specific for these end-points. It is unlikely that even in the ongoing or recently completed trials serotype-specific efficacy will become available for pneumonia. Hence, licensure of future formulations will have to be based on invasive disease end-points.

Other options for establishing serological criteria that predict protection are the use of geometric mean concentration (GMC) of antibody and seroconversion rates. While GMC may be better to predict mucosal protection, herd immunity, and efficacy against vaccine-related types, proportion of responders reaching a threshold level may be best predictor of protection against invasive disease. The lack of correlation between serotype-specific GMCs and serotype-specific protection against acute otitis media (AOM) suggests that GMC as such may not be an appropriate end-point even for prediction of immunity to mucosal disease [21]. The antibody concentration needed for protection against AOM seem to differ by serotype. This has been shown by models which have included serotype-specific antibody concentrations and the risk of acute otitis media caused by the serotype among vaccinated children [22]. Seroconversion could be used as a criterion for serotypes for which efficacy data were not available. However, seroconversion will be difficult to define in the presence of passively acquired maternal antibody.

4. The role of immunological memory in protection against pneumococcal invasive disease

There is now evidence to show that conjugate vaccines are T-cell dependent antigens and that they induce immunological memory in the form of an expanded pool of mem-

ory B cells [14,23]. Antibody concentrations may gradually diminish after a primary series of doses and these concentrations may or may not fall below the estimated protective threshold. It is expected that subsequent natural exposure to the pathogen or another dose of the vaccine will elicit a booster response and result in a large increase in antibody production so that the antibody concentrations may exceed the protective threshold concentration within 5–7 days of exposure. It is important to note that immunological responses may differ between the licensed and new vaccine depending on when the serum was collected relative to the administration of the priming series, any subsequent booster dose or natural immunizing exposure to the organism.

Existing data suggest that circulating antibody, induced by the primary series of vaccination with Prevnar™, was maintained as a result of priming [24]. Evidence that pneumococcal conjugates induce immunological memory raises the question of whether memory alone is sufficient to confer protection and whether it will only be sufficient to offer protection against invasive disease or whether it will also provide protection against AOM. Studies on the natural history of disease and acquisition of immunity in infants suggest that the failure to mount a satisfactory immune response to capsular polysaccharide leaves them more prone to pneumococcal infection. Over time, carriage of the organism repeatedly maintains natural immunity offering protection throughout most of the remainder of an individual's life. Only in old age, as a consequence of waning immunity and other non-immunological factors, pneumococcal disease once again becomes an important cause of morbidity and mortality [25,26]. On this basis, it appears to be reasonable to predict that induction of immunological memory will be sufficient for long-term protection against disease.

For the purposes of vaccine evaluation and licensure it is important to agree upon a common definition of immunolog-

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ical memory to a polysaccharide antigen. It can be defined as a response that is (a) present in an otherwise non-responsive individual (e.g. infants who do not normally respond to certain polysaccharide antigens), (b) characterised by a higher antibody response that is dominated by IgG on exposure to an antigen, and (c) characterized by antibodies with increased affinity or avidity as a result of affinity maturation. Thus, possible approaches to measuring memory could include: (a) evidence of a boostable/augmented immune response with either polysaccharide or conjugated antigen; (b) the presence of a response dominated by IgG; and (c) increased antibody avidity. Generally, there is a relationship between antibody avidity and its functionality, in that higher avidity antibodies are functional at lower concentrations than lower avidity antibodies [27]. However, antibody concentration does not always predict antibody avidity. Evidence suggests that a single dose of conjugate vaccine may be sufficient to increase antibody avidity [28,29], that higher avidity antibodies were more cross-reactive with closely related pneumococcal serotypes [28,29], and that memory probably can be predicted from the primary response (Table 1), although priming can occur in the absence of active antibody production (Fig. 4). For the purposes of vaccine evaluation, the simplest method of demonstrating memory would be the increased concentration and IgG dominance of an antibody response following a booster dose.

5. Conclusions

Based on the discussions and deliberations at the meeting, the following conclusions were drawn:

5.1. Primary end-point

- IgG antibody concentrations as measured by ELISA 4 weeks after a three-dose priming series would be the optimal primary end-point and main licensing parameter.
- A single threshold antibody concentration that predicts protection against invasive disease should be used for all pneumococcal serotypes. This threshold will be determined through an analysis that pools data from the efficacy trials with invasive disease end-points that have been completed to date.
- The percentage of responders (to be determined following the definition of the threshold concentration) should be used as the criteria to determine non-inferiority.
- A single primary end-point is sufficient for registration.

5.2. Secondary end-points to support licensure

5.2.1. Functional antibodies

- Opsonophagocytic activity as measured by opsonophagocytic assay after a three-dose priming series is required

to demonstrate the functionality of antibodies; the opsonophagocytic activity should be compared ideally to an age-matched non-immunized population, as antibodies to other antigens can demonstrate opsonophagocytic activity.

- Cross-laboratory standardization of OPA should be conducted as soon as possible, and WHO would take appropriate steps to accelerate this process.

5.2.2. Immunological memory

- Evidence of memory will be shown by administration of a booster dose of pneumococcal PS vaccine and comparison of concentrations between age matched unprimed and primed individuals.
- At this stage, use of a fractional dose of PS as booster is only a possibility but not sufficiently tested.
- Avidity of antibodies is also a useful marker for immunological memory.

Acknowledgements

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